

THE LITERARY CHRONICLE And Weekly Review;

Forming an Analysis and General Repository of Literature, Philosophy, Science, Arts, History, the Drama, Morals, Manners, and Amusements.

This Paper is published at Six o'Clock every Saturday Morning; and forwarded, Weekly or Monthly, to all Parts of the United Kingdom.

No. 19. LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 25, 1819. Price 6d.

Review of New Books.

A History of England, from the First Invasion by the Romans, to the Accession of Henry VIII. By the Rev. John Lingard. 3 vols. 4to. pp. 1785. London, 1819.

AMONG the able historians this country already boasts, it certainly required more than ordinary courage, and indicated the strong confidence the author had in his own talents, to undertake the writing of a new history of England; a task already so ably executed by preceding writers. But while we do justice to the elegance of Hume, and to the minuteness of detail in Rapin, who, although a foreigner, was an able historian, we think there was still sufficient room for a new competitor in the field of British history, and the public have been anxiously waiting some years for the long promised work of Sir James Macintosh. History has, within the last twenty or thirty years, become much more studied in England; the valuable chronicles and state papers, which for so long had lain on the shelf in the libraries of a very few, have been reprinted; and the dust has been brushed from the MSS. in our national depositories. That these, however, can have furnished very little assistance to Mr. Lingard, in that part of his history now published, will be readily admitted, but we doubt not his turning them to advantage in those volumes which will include a later period of our history. We are far from thinking that Mr. Lingard's work will entirely supersede those already written, but we do feel convinced that it will hold a high rank among them, and that what, in many persons, would have been justly deemed presumption, and too high an opinion of their own talents, will be found in our author to have been nothing more than a well-grounded consciousness of possessing the necessary qualifications for an historian.

In a brief advertisement, (for the author does not detain his readers with either dedication or preface,) Mr. Lingard states, that he has endeavoured to avoid the two extremes of prolixity and of brevity, and that he has not confined himself to a brief recital of facts, but has endeavoured to trace the silent progress of nations from barbarism to refinement; that he has been careful to introduce nothing which he deemed trivial or irrelevant, and to exclude nothing which appeared to him important in its consequences, or illustrative of the character of the times. He says, that this work was in the first instance composed without any reference to modern historians, and that he religiously confined his researches to the original, and, whenever it was possible, to contemporary writers, which preserved him from imbibing the prejudices or copying the mistakes of others; and he very justly observes, that the historian should 'keep a steady rein on the imagination,

or he will mistake fiction for truth, and write a romance in the place of a history.'

Although we are well aware that it is as a whole, and not by any detached parts, that our readers could be able to judge fairly of the merits of a work like the one before us, yet we shall select a few extracts as specimens of the author's style, but, before we do this, we shall state more particularly the plan of the work, as to arrangement.

Mr. Lingard's history has much less of dissertation than that of Hume, and has none of the formal divisions of Hume, into the different branches of civil, military, and ecclesiastical history; here they are carried on simultaneously, and in the order in which the events occur. The reign of each monarch is preceded by a list of the contemporary princes; and a series of well arranged genealogical tables are inserted, as often as any change or alteration in the succession render it necessary; these, collectively, exhibit the descent of the sovereigns during the whole time of the history. The character of the sovereign is generally interspersed with the events of his reign; and where the author has differed with other historians, or has wished to elucidate some part of the text, or to discuss some disputed point, he has done it in notes added to the end of the volume. The extracts we shall make will be without much attention to selection; the first shall be of the Britons before the Roman conquest, whom our readers will scarcely be able to recognize, with their painted bodies:—

'By the Roman writers, all the natives of Britain are indiscriminately denominated *barbarians*, a term of indefinite import, which must vary its signification with the subject to which it is applied. Though far removed from the elegance and refinement of their invaders, the Belgic tribes of the south might almost claim the praise of civilization in comparison with their northern brethren. Their dress was of their own manufacture. A square mantle covered a vest and trowsers, or a deeply plaited tunic of braided cloth: the waist was encircled with a belt: rings adorned the second finger of each hand: and a chain of iron or brass was suspended from the neck. Their huts resembled those of their Gallic neighbours. A foundation of stone supported a circular wall of timber and reeds; over which was thrown a conical roof, pierced in the centre, for the twofold purpose of admitting light and discharging the smoke. In husbandry, they possessed considerable skill. They had discovered the use of marl as a manure: they raised more corn than was necessary for their own consumption; and, to preserve it till the following harvest, they generally stored it in the cavities of rocks. But, beyond the borders of the southern tribes, these faint traces of civilization gradually disappeared. The midland and western nations were unacquainted with either agriculture or manufactures. Their riches consisted in the extent of their pastures, and the number of their flocks. With milk and flesh they satisfied the cravings of hunger; and, clothed in skins, they bade defiance to the inclemency of the elements. But even sheep were scarcely known in the more northern parts; and the hordes of savages, who roamed through the wilds of

Caledonia, often depended for support on the casual produce of the chase. They went almost naked, and sheltered themselves from the weather under the cover of the woods, or in the caverns of the mountains. Their situation had hardened both their minds and bodies. If it had made them patient of fatigue and privation, it had also taught them to be rapacious, bloody, and revengeful. When Severus invaded their country, the Roman legions were appalled at the strength, the activity, the hardihood, and ferocity of these northern Britons.'

The southern tribes had become more civilized, by their intercourse with strangers, which the pursuits of commerce had attracted to their coast; this was principally the produce of the tin mines. Of the customs and religion of the Britons, our author gives the following account:—

'Of the peculiar customs of the Britons, but few and imperfect notices have been transmitted to posterity. One strange and disgusting practice, that of painting the body, seems to have prevailed in many parts of the island. For this purpose, the southern tribes employed a blue dye, extracted from woad, which gave to them, in the eyes of foreigners, the appearance of Ethiopians. It was adopted equally by both sexes; and was consecrated in their estimation by ceremonies of religion. Connected with this was the still more barbarous practice of tattooing, so long in use among the northern Britons. At an early age, the outlines of animals were impressed with pointed instruments in the skin: a strong infusion of woad was rubbed into the punctures; and the figures, expanding with the growth of the body, retained their original appearance through life. The Briton was vain of this hideous ornament; and, to exhibit it in the eyes of his enemies, he was always careful to throw off his clothes in the day of battle.'

'The religion of the natives was that of the druids, whether it had been brought by them from Gaul, as is the more natural supposition, or, as Caesar asserts, had been invented in the island. The druids adored, under different appellations, the same gods as the Greeks and Romans. Pluto they considered as their progenitor; Apollo, Mars, Jupiter, and Minerva were severally worshipped; but to Mercury, as the inventor of the useful arts, they paid a more particular veneration. To these, the superior gods, they added, like other polytheists, a multitude of local deities, the genii of the woods, rivers, and mountains. Some fanciful writers have pretended that they rejected the use of temples, through a sublime notion of the divine immensity; though the absence of such structures may, with more probability, be referred to their want of architectural skill. On the oak they looked with peculiar reverence. This monarch of the forest, from its strength and durability, was considered as the most appropriate emblem of the divinity. The tree and its productions were deemed holy: to its trunk was bound the victim destined for slaughter; and of its leaves were formed the chaplets worn at the time of sacrifice. If it chanced to produce the mistletoe, the whole tribe was summoned; two white heifers were immolated under its branches; the principal druid cut the sacred plant with a knife of gold, and a religious feast terminated the ceremonies of the day.'

'The druids were accustomed to dwell at a distance from the profane, in huts or caverns, amid the silence and gloom of the forest. There, at the hours of noon or midnight, when the deity was supposed to honour the sacred spot with his presence, the trembling votary was admitted within a circle of lofty oaks, to prefer his prayer, and listen to the responses of the minister. In peace they offered the fruits of the earth; in war they devoted to the god of battles the spoils of the enemy. The cattle were slaughtered in his honour; a pile was formed of the rest of the booty, and was consecrated as a monument of his powerful assistance. But, in the hour of danger or distress, human sacrifices were deemed the most efficacious. Impelled by a superstition, which had steeled all the feelings of humanity, the officiating priest plunged his

dagger into the breast of his victim, whether captive or malefactor; and, from the rapidity with which the blood issued from the wound, and the convulsions in which the sufferer expired, presumed to announce the future happiness or calamity of his country.'

The veneration which the druids derived from their sacerdotal character, was added to the respect which the reputation of knowledge never fails to extort from the vulgar. They professed to be the depositaries of mystic science, and practised the art of divination with eager assiduity. A skill in astrology and in medicine were also among their pretensions. They taught the immortality of the soul, but added to it the doctrine of metempsychosis. The great objects of the order were, according to themselves, 'to reform morals, to secure peace, and to encourage goodness;' and the following lesson, which they inculcated to the people, was certainly conducive to those ends: 'the three first principles of wisdom are, obedience to the laws of God, concern for the good of man, and fortitude under the accidents of life.'

There has been much discussion, and many fanciful theories invented on the origin of the Picts and Scots, which appeared suddenly to start into existence in the course of the fourth century. This subject Mr. Lingard treats very learnedly, and quotes numerous authorities in support of his opinion; he says,—

'1. To me it seems manifest that the Picts were, under a new denomination, the very same people whom we have hitherto called Maætæ and Caledonians. The name of Caledonians properly belonged to the natives of that long but narrow strip of land, which stretches from Loch Finn on the western, to the frith of Tayne on the eastern coast; but it had been extended, by the Romans, to all the kindred and independent clans which lay between them and the northern extremity of the island. In the fourth century, the mistake was discovered and rectified; and, from that time, not only the Caledonians, but their southern neighbours, the five tribes of the Maætæ, began to be known by the generic appellation of Picts, a word derived, perhaps, from the national custom of painting the body, more probably from the name which they bore in their own language. 2. The Scots came undoubtedly from Ireland, which, like its sister island, appears to have been colonized by adventurers from different countries. Thus we meet with tribes of Damnii, Volantii, Brigantes, and Cangii, names which point out a British origin; of Menapii and Cauci, descended from the parent tribes in Belgium and Germany, and of Iberni and Concani, who seem to have emigrated from Spain. These were scattered on different points of the coast, while the interior was held by numerous clans of the Scoti, many of whom, in the fourth century, united with the Attacotti, a kindred clan in the neighbourhood of Loch Lomond, to plunder the rich provinces of the Roman Britons. But the Scots soon aspired to something more permanent than plunder. From the north of Ireland the passage was short and inviting; hordes of adventurers followed each other; settlements were obtained from the friendship, or extorted from the weakness, of the Picts; and, at last, the strangers acquired so marked a superiority over the indigenous tribes, as to impart the name of Scotland to the northern division of Britain. It was long, however, before the two nations were blended in one people. We find the Picts distinguished from the Scots as late as the twelfth century.'

Mr. Lingard's history of the Anglo-Saxons will be read with interest, even after the very able work on the same subject by Sharon Turner; the origin and character of this people—their repeated descents in Britain—their civil and military polity, and their influence on society, are all very ably treated. The character of Alfred, per-

haps for the first time, is justly estimated, and while ample justice is done to his virtues and his talents, the indiscriminate praise which has been heaped on his memory is proved to have required qualifying:—

'It has been said that the character of Alfred was without a blemish. Such unqualified praise is the language of rhetorical declamation, rather than of historical truth. In his early years, indeed, his opening virtues endeared him to the nation; and, in a more advanced age, he was the guardian and the benefactor of his country. But in his conduct at the commencement of his reign, there was much to reprehend. The young monarch seems to have considered his high dignity as an emancipation from restraint, and to have found leisure, even amidst his struggles with the Danes, to indulge the impetuosity of his passions. The scandal of Wallingford may be dismissed with the contempt which it perhaps deserves; but we learn, from more ancient authorities, that his immorality and despotism provoked the censure of his virtuous kinsman, St. Neot; and Asser, his friend and panegyrist, acknowledges that he was haughty to his subjects, that he neglected the administration of justice, and treated with contempt the complaints of the indigent and oppressed. It was to this *indiscretion*, (to borrow the term under which the partiality of the biographer was willing to veil the misconduct of his patron,) that Alfred himself attributed the severe and unexpected calamity, which overwhelmed him in the eighth year of his reign. For the piety of the age, instead of tracing events to their political sources, referred them immediately to the providence of God; and considered misfortunes as the instrument with which divine justice punished past enormities.'

Much has already been written on the Anglo-Saxon system of government, but it is still very little understood; and among those of the present day who are anxious to effect an alteration in the present state of the representation, there is one gentleman, who has consumed much midnight oil in endeavouring to trace annual parliaments and universal suffrage to the time of the Anglo-Saxons. A very rapid sketch of their form of government will, however, show how futile and how ridiculous such an attempt must be.

Among the Anglo-Saxons, the free population was divided into the *eorl* and the *ceorl*, the men of noble and ignoble descent. The former were said to be *Ethelborn*; and, with a people acknowledging no other merit than martial prowess, it is probable that this distinction attached to those only whose fathers had never exercised the occupations of husbandry, or of the mechanical arts. It was merely personal, and conferred neither property nor power, but it served to gratify pride, and numerous complaints attest the arrogance of the noble Saxon to his inferior. The more lofty title of *Etheling*, the son of the noble, was reserved for the members of the reigning family. Among the *Ethelborn*, the first place was occupied by the *cyning* or king, who, whether succeeding as the direct or collateral heir of his predecessor, was always elected by the *witan*, before his coronation. 'The Saxons could not comprehend how a freeman could become the dependant of another, except by his own consent; but the election rendered the *cyning* the lord of the principal chieftains, and, through them, of their respective vassals.' His estates were nearly equal to all their's together, and he possessed a power sufficient to humble the proudest, or to reduce the most factious of his subjects. Thrice in the year, the great tenants were reminded of their dependence, and were summoned to pay him their homage. He exercised an undisputed authority over the national forces by sea and land,—was the supreme judge, and was accustomed to

receive appeals in every court of judicature. The principal portion of all fines were paid into his treasury. The ealdorman, sheriff, boroughreeves, and judges, were appointed by him, held their offices at his pleasure, and were displaced at his caprice. His 'peace,' or protection, secured the man to whom it was granted from the pursuit of his enemies, and some infractions of this peace subjected the offender to a heavy amercement; others of a more heinous description placed his life and property at the mercy of the king*.

The consort of the *cyning* was originally known by the appellation of 'queen,' and shared in common with her husband the splendour of royalty, until deprived of this distinction by the crime of *Eadburga*, who administered poison to her husband, *Brihtwic*, king of Wessex, when the witan punished the unoffending wives of their future monarchs, by abolishing, with the title of queen, all the appendages of female royalty. The consorts of the future sovereigns generally had the modest title of 'the lady.'

After the royal family, the highest order in the state was that of the ealdormen, or earls; and the districts they governed, in the name of the king, were denominated their shires, confined originally to a small tract of country, but gradually enlarged to the extent of our present counties. This office was originally in the gift of the crown, and might be forfeited by misconduct; but it was so frequently continued in the same family, that at last it began to be claimed as a right.

There was another order of men, called, by Bede, *Comites*, and by Alfred, 'gesiths,' a word which signifies attendants or companions. These appear to have been officers of the royal household, bound to attend the king and wait on him in rotation.

The *thanes*, so called from *thegnian*, to serve, were a numerous and distinguished order of men, who held their lands by the honourable tenure of military service. Property, however, was sufficient to raise a *ceorl* to the rank of a *thane*; and the merchant who had sailed thrice to a foreign land, with a cargo of his own wares, was entitled to the same honour.

The *gerefas*, or *reeves*, were officers of high importance, appointed by the king and the great proprietors in their respective demesnes. These were to collect the tolls, apprehend malefactors, receive rents, &c. and, on several occasions, to act in the place of their lords:—

'The lowest class of freemen was that of *ceorls*, or husbandmen. Of these, some possessed bockland, but not in sufficient quantity to raise them to the rank of *thanes*: others held lands of their lords by the payment of rent, or other free but inferior services. The relief of the latter was fixed at one year's rent. As long as they were exact in the performance of the customary services, they could not be expelled from their estates; though they were at liberty to return them to their lords whenever it suited their convenience. In many charters, and in *Domesday*, may be seen the different species of services which prevailed in different districts. As a freeman, a *ceorl*, could not be put in bonds, nor subjected to the ignominious punishment of whipping. His life was protected by a *were* of two hundred shillings.'

The administration of justice among the Anglo-Saxons was ill calculated to elicit truth, or to produce conviction. The subject, however, is curious and interesting, as their

* The real distance to which the king's peace extended, from his actual residence, was whimsically fixed at three miles, three furlongs, three rods, nine feet, nine hands, (inches?) and nine barley-corus,

ancient courts still subsist under different names. The lowest species of jurisdiction was that of ‘*Sac and Soc.*’ It was the privilege of holding pleas and imposing within a certain district; and, with a few variations, was perpetuated in the manorial courts of the Norman dynasty. From the custom of holding these courts in the hall of the lord, they were usually termed the hall-motes.

Superior to the hall-mote, was the mote of the hundred, a large division of the county. It was assembled every month, under the presidency of the ealdorman, or reeve, accompanied by the principal clergymen and freeholders. Once in the year, was convened an extraordinary meeting, when every male, above the age of twelve, was compelled to attend. In these courts offenders were tried, and civil causes decided, contracts were made, exchanges ratified, purchases completed, and monies paid in the presence of the court.

The shire-mote, or court of the county, was of still higher dignity and more extensive jurisdiction. It was held twice in the year, in the beginning of May and October. Every great proprietor was compelled to attend, either in person or by his steward, or to send his chaplain, bailiff, and four principal tenants. The bishop and ealdorman, or earl, presided with equal authority, and their assessors were the sheriff and the most noble of the royal thanes.

The general opinion, that the shires and hundreds were established by Alfred, is very disputable. Alfred might improve, but he certainly could not invent a system which existed before his reign. The division of shires was common to all the northern nations, and that of hundreds was a continental institution; but the most important branch of the Anglo-Saxon polity, and that on which some modern writers have formed so erroneous an opinion, was the witenagemot; of the constitution of this assembly, our author is, as usual, very explicit:—

‘ But these occasional courts, respectable as they might be, were eclipsed by the superior splendour and dignity of the “mickle synths, or witenagemots,” the great meetings, or the assemblies of the counsellors, which were regularly convened at the festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, and, occasionally, at other times, as difficult circumstances or sudden exigencies might require. Who were the constituent members of this supreme tribunal, has long been a subject of debate; and the dissertations, to which it has given rise, have only contributed to involve it in greater obscurity. It has been pretended, that not only the military tenants had a right to be present, but that the ceorls also attended by their representatives, the borsholders of the tythings. The latter part of the assertion has been made without a shadow of evidence, and the former is built on very fallacious grounds. It is, indeed, probable, that in the infancy of the Anglo-Saxon states, most of the military retainers may have attended the public councils, yet, even then, the deliberations were confined to the chieftains, and nothing remained for the vassals but to applaud the determination of their lords. But in later times, when the several principalities were united into one monarchy, the recurrence of these assemblies, thrice in every year within the short space of six months, would have been an insupportable burthen to the lesser proprietors; and there is reason to suspect that the greater attended only when it was required by the importance of events, or by the vicinity of the court. The principal members seem to have been the spiritual and temporal thanes, who held immediately of the crown, and who could command the services of military vassals. It was necessary that the king should obtain the assent of these to all legislative enactments; because, without their acquiescence and support, it was impossible to carry them into

execution. To many charters we have the signatures of the witan. They seldom exceed thirty in number; they never amount to sixty. They include the names of the king and his sons, of a few bishops and abbots, of nearly an equal number of ealdormen and thanes, and occasionally of the queen, and of one or two abbesses. Others, the fideles, or vassals, who had accompanied their lords, are mentioned as looking on and applauding; but there exists no proof whatever, that they enjoyed any share in the deliberations.’

Mr. Lingard proves that the witenagemot did not possess much independent authority, for, as individually they were the vassals of the sovereign, and had sworn ‘to love what he loved, and shun what he shunned,’ there can be little doubt that they generally acquiesced in his wishes.

These several classes constituted the Anglo-Saxon nation: they alone were possessed of liberty, or power, or property. They formed, however, but a small part of the population, of which, perhaps, not less than two thirds existed in a state of slavery, and were sold like cattle in the market; and there is reason to believe that a slave was usually estimated at only four times the price of an ox.

(To be continued.)

Travels in Egypt, being a continuation of the Travels in the Holy Land, in 1817-18. By Count de Forbin. 8vo. pp. 95. London, 1819.

In a review of the first part of Count Forbin’s Travels, we noticed the general brevity of his descriptions, which are little more than are necessary to explain the graphic part of the work; this objection applies less to the concluding part of his Travels, which is, by far, the most interesting, and commences with an account of the journey of the author across the deserts from el-Arych to Damietta, and the difficulties the party encountered. At the latter place, they visited the consul of France, Vasili Fackre, who entertained them sumptuously:—

‘ Good cheer presided at his board; the breakfast was often spread on the banks of the Nile, and we quaffed the exhilarating wines of Champagne under the shade of the citron groves of the Delta. Arabian music, the identical sounds which regaled the ears of the caliphs of Bagdad, gave a zest to the entertainments of this hospitable mansion, where our slightest wishes were anticipated by a numerous train of slaves.

‘ The Arab musicians are always accompanied by a buffoon, (*magannoun;*) he skips about, ridicules the musicians, throws himself into the most obscene postures, and never fails to gratify the company, who express their plaudits, by clapping hands and exclaiming “*Tayb, Tayb, mā châ Allah.*”

‘ The ancient custom of keeping fools or buffoons, formerly prevalent with the sovereigns of Europe, is still in vogue in the East; the lowest aga will not go abroad without a mute *, a little deformed dwarf, that, for diversion, is encumbered with a load of arms; the difficulty the little gentleman finds in mounting a fiery courser, or the air *mal-a-droit* with which he presents coffee or the pipe, furnish topics of unceasing merriment to the lord and his courtiers.

‘ Sometimes these buffoons are found with understanding and wit; it happens, also, that occasionally some are tinctured with a deep sense of their condition; however, they conceal their regrets, in the form of tales or apophyses, conveying morals of a severe tendency, but, in general, their grimaces are more attended to than their verses.

* * M. de Choiseul Gouffier, when asked by a pacha of Asia Minor, if his sovereign kept any buffoons, replied, that for such matters, his master took what the chance of society might put in his way.’

'The aga of Damietta had just married his dumb dwarf to a poor little mute; and expectation was on tiptoe at his court, to see what results this pitiable union would produce.'

'I went to visit the bazar of black slaves; a great number had recently arrived from Darfour, but all had been sold, with the exception of two negro women, one twenty and the other fifteen years of age. The merchants ordered them to stand up on my coming; they were laid at length on a mat, and covered up with a piece of black cotton cloth; their locks frizzled and plastered with grease, fell in regular folds on their foreheads and shoulders; a melancholy grief was depicted in their countenances. I tried to bargain for the youngest, whose figure was perfectly handsome, but a thousand Egyptian piastres were asked for her. However, I left some *roubiers*, (a small Egyptian coin,) with these unfortunate women, though my drogomans insisted that they were already too happy by being presented before my excellency.'

At Cairo, the fortress of which is described as a city of itself, 'covered with monuments, ramparts, towers, bastions, constructed at different periods, and half in ruins,' Count Forbin visited what is commonly called Joseph's Well, though it was not the production of Jacob's son, but the whole establishment was formed by Sultan You-souf Abou Modaffar Ebn Ayaub:—

'His potent hand, which scooped out this abyss, constructed, also, some of the most sumptuous edifices of the east. This very work is a most remarkable object, delineating traces of ability and true grandeur. By a large and commodious stair-case, you descend to the bottom of this vast cavern, two hundred feet under ground; and with the aid of a very simple machine, a great quantity of the purest and most salutary water is constantly supplied.'

Count Forbin furnishes few details relative to the pyramids, the largest of which he supposes to be coeval with the siege of Troy, and with the time occupied by laying the foundation of Solomon's temple, but he suspects there may be some exaggeration in the suppositions of one of his countrymen, viz. that the great pyramid, if pulled down, would compose a wall ten feet high, and a foot and a half wide, spacious enough to inclose a country equal in extent to France.

At Thebes, our author met with a French mineralogist, M. Caillaud, who had been deputed, by Mohammed Aly, to go in quest of an emerald mine, on the banks of the Red Sea, worked in ancient times, but long since forgotten. M. Caillaud had discovered a vein of pale green emerald. This traveller made some interesting discoveries:—

'At the little town of Secket, supposed to be one of the Berenices, M. Caillaud discovered the ruins of eight hundred houses, and the remains of three temples, two of which, in high preservation, had been hollowed out in the mountain; appearances indicate that the place had been inhabited by miners.'

'This traveller had noticed a thousand excavations, some of which penetrated a hundred feet under ground, in a granitic and schistous tale. According to him, three hundred persons might be introduced, and labour at their ease, if not with great effect, in the quarries.'

M. Caillaud's caravan had undergone many privations, and even lost some individuals in its route, and returned by the ancient *Eletheyia*. This, perhaps, was a branch communicating with the high road from Coptos to the Great Berenice.

'As an occasional relaxation from fatigue, M. Caillaud indulged his genius in sporting with the penetration and antiquarian knowledge of a certain contemporary traveller then at Thebes; an enlightened character in matters of general observation, but not equally successful in the finer shades, and

more precise determinations of profound research. M. Caillaud instructed an Arab to present him with a pipe, on which had been engraven, with some art, several hieroglyphical and Coptic characters. This amateur of rareties, though wide were the range and scope of his inquiries, was a stranger to the bycharite pipes, commonly used in Abyssinia. Nor could the scent of the tobacco undeceive him; a bituminous perfume pervading the channel had been introduced, as particularly favourable for deception. This gentleman had examined the pipe with great care, and conceiving it to be an object extremely interesting, with many thanks paid the mysterious Bedouin thirty-five dollars, meaning to embellish the description of his journal with much ornamental information relative to the history of the pipe. Men of learning and conjecture will no doubt occupy their time and display their industry in various historico-scientific notes for the illustration of his text.'

'M. Caillaud, who was then proceeding to Cairo, has since made a second voyage into Upper Egypt. Setting out from Esne, for the great Oasis, after a journey of four days and a half through an ocean of sand, he reached the Oasis, the circuit whereof comprehends, as he conceives, about fifteen leagues. He was hospitably received by the Arabs.'

'Here M. Caillaud discovered a large temple dedicated to God the Creator; he states its dimensions to be equal with those of Medynet-Abou; in it he found an inscription in Greek, of nine thousand words, which he copied, and which, if translated, would no doubt interest and delight the classical reader. M. Caillaud also measured five other smaller temples, and traced the vestiges of five abandoned villages.'

It would be trenching too much on this work, which is published at a price within the reach of all classes of readers, to pursue the narrative; we shall, therefore, only observe, that the author, after remaining some time at Thebes, and examining its antiquities, returned to Cairo, proceeded to Rosetta, crossed the desert to Alexandria, where he was introduced to Mohammed Aly, Pacha of Egypt, and then bid adieu to Egypt and the oriental world.

At the end of the pamphlet are about twenty pages of what are called 'Explanatory Notes,' and which are certainly quite as important as the text, and ought to have formed part of it. From these we select a few articles:—

'*The Temple of Solomon.*—The temple of Jerusalem stood in the lowest quarter of the city, at the distance of one hundred paces from the walls, in an easterly direction, and on Mount Moriah, the same whereon Abraham was to have immolated Isaac by a divine injunction. Solomon employed 30,000 workmen, and laid out immense sums in the preparations for cutting timber, hewing stones, and in the finishing of an edifice so august. It was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but rebuilt by Zerubabel; 586 years after which rebuilding, it was consumed in the conflagration of the city under Titus.'

'At present, on the scite and on the eastern part of Mount Moriah, where stood the Sanctum Sanctorum, a Turkish mosque appears, the entrance to which is through a quadrangle, 500 feet in length and 400 in width. Twelve gates open into this quadrangle, each under a sort of arch, containing four or five lamps; these serve as oratories to the Mahometans, when the doors of the temple are closed.'

'The whole exterior of this mosque is decorated with marble tablets and damask glazed tiles or lozenges, painted over with moresque gildings, affording a rich feast for the eyes, when exposed to the sun's rays, by the dazzling lustre which they emit. The roofing is of lead, and the panes of glass are of different colours.'

'In the interior are thirty-two pillars of grey marble, arranged in two rows; the sixteen largest support the first arch, and the others the dome, each having its pedestal and chapter. Round about the pillars are handsome chandeliers, made of steel or gilt copper, wherein 7000 lamps are kept burning,

from Thursday, after sun-set, till Friday noon, and every year during the whole time of Ramadan, or Lent, which lasts a month.

In the centre of the mosque is a marble turret, with eighteen steps on the outside, leading to its summit; here the cadi takes his place every Friday, from twelve to two o'clock, during the celebration of the Mahometan rites.

To this building, as a substitute for the temple of Solomon, the Arabs give the name of *Haram*; besides which, there is another, called by them *Djâma-el-Hadrah*, being the temple of the Virgin, about 100 or 120 paces from that of Solomon, towards the south. Next to the former, it is the most superb edifice in the Holy Land. Its form is oblong, from north to south; the stone work is of a beautiful description, as are also three arches, overlaid with lead, and standing on two rows of pillars of a grey stone.

The Lake Asphaltites, or the Dead Sea.—This whole region is evidently volcanic. A number of flourishing cities have, by a tremendous explosion, been overwhelmed with volcanic ravages, and are now covered with the bituminous and sulphureous waters of this bitter lake. Even in our times, it spouts forth volleys of smoke, and fresh crevices are continually opening on its banks. We may conceive that the Jordan formerly traversed the whole plain, and perhaps fell into the Mediterranean, through the valleys that extend in the direction of Gaza.

Analysis of the Water of the Dead Sea.—The analysis was made in an iron-tinned vessel, sealed hermetically. When drawn out from the vase, it had no bituminous or other ill-scented flavour. It seemed a little discoloured, but quickly became transparent. The taste was very salt and bitter, and there were no visible traces of any microscopic animalcule.

Its density, in the temperature of seventeen degrees centigrade, is of 12.283. It is such that a man may easily float on it, without an effort to swim, but not to the extent that Strabo makes mention of, that a person might stand upright in it, and not sink beneath the naval.

The water, exposed to a cold of seven degrees of thawing temperature, did not precipitate any salt, which proves that it is not saturated. But in that of fifteen degrees, when, by evaporation, it has lost 471 centimes, or hundredth parts, of its weight, it will lay a deposit of marine salt. A hundred parts of the water leave, by evaporation, a saline residuum, which, when thoroughly dried, and taking account of the marine acid, disengaged from it by the heat, weighs 2624.

Jordan and its Water.—The water of Jordan is perfectly transparent, and has no perceptible taste. This transparency is disturbed a little, by an infusion of nitrate of barite and oxalate of ammoniac, which indicates that it must contain a portion of sulphate of calx. It also contains proportions of marine salt, and of muriate magnesia, with a very slight quantity of sulphate of calx. This last, however, is much more abundant in the waters of Jordan than in that of the Dead Sea.

Arabian Horses.—It was in Syria that I had opportunities of observing the finest horses of this description. The dearest and most rare are of the race of *Oal Nagdi*. Bassora is their country; they are beautiful, gentle, exceedingly swift, of a bay-brown colour, and frequently dapple grey. Some possess an intelligence that appears wonderful. Examples are cited of an unbounded attachment to their masters. Valued at the high price of 3000 piastres. A mare was lately sold at St. d'Acre, for 15,000 piastres.

Different breeds.—The race of *Guelfé*, originally from Yemen, are patient, indefatigable, and extremely gentle, valued at about 4000 piastres. The *Seclâouy*, from the eastern part of the desert; price much the same. *Oal Mefki*,—superb and stately, but less able to endure fatigue. The rich Turks of Damascus value them highly; they are procured from the adjacent deserts; price about 3000 piastres. *Oal Sabi*, resemble the Mefki, but reckoned inferior; price from 1200 to 2000 piastres. *Oal Treidi*, handsome, but apt to be restive, and with less of intelligence and boldness than the other breeds; price from 900 to 1000 piastres.'

Egyptian Coins.—It was in the reign of Argades, under the Persian dominion, that the first coins were struck and passed current in Egypt. But a small number were put into circulation. A few are sometimes found in the sands that have been so often sifted by the Arabs, but those that are met with never reach higher than the age of Alexander. Under the Ptolomies, certain cities, (of which number were Pelusium, Thebes, Memphis, and Abydos,) had the privilege of coining money.

It is thought that the Pharaohs were not so rich as many have imagined. Statues of bronze and gold were very rare in Egypt. The gold circle on the tomb of Osymandyas, and the gold statue of the Delta, are conceived to be of doubtful authenticity. The Athenians, say some, expended more on their statue of Minerva, than the Egyptians on one of the great obelisks of Sais.

Several engravings, particularly one, a 'General View of the Pyramids of Gheza,' and another, which exhibits the efforts of M. Belzoni, in exploring the interior of the second of these stupendous monuments of past ages, add much to the interest of this work.

View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages. By Henry Hallam, Esq.

(Continued.)

OF the Trial by Combat, a species of judicial decision which fell before the feudal system, in France, but outlived it in some other countries, Mr. Hallam gives a very concise account, particularly of the cases in which it could be demanded under the feudal system, in France; and, although late events have caused much and very able discussions of this subject, in England, yet we cannot forbear quoting our author:—

These courts of a feudal barony or manor, required neither the knowledge of positive law nor the dictates of natural sagacity. In all doubtful cases, and especially where a crime not capable of notorious proof was charged, the combat was awarded; and God, as they deemed, was the judge. The nobleman fought on horseback, with all his arms of attack and defence; the plebeian on foot, with his club and target. The same were the weapons of the champions, to whom women and ecclesiastics were permitted to entrust their rights. If the combat was intended to ascertain a civil right, the vanquished party of course forfeited his claim, and paid a fine. If he fought by proxy, the champion was liable to have his hand struck off; a regulation necessary, perhaps, to obviate the corruption of these hired defenders. In criminal cases, the appellant suffered, in the event of defeat, the same punishment which the law awarded to the offence of which he accused his adversary. Even where the cause was more peaceably tried, and brought to a regular adjudication by the court, an appeal for false judgment might, indeed, be made to the suzerain, but it could only be tried by battle. And in this, the appellant, if he would impeach the concurrent judgment of the court below, was compelled to meet successively in combat, every one of its members: unless he should vanquish them all within the day, his life, if he escaped from so many hazards, was forfeited to the law. If fortune or miracle should make him conqueror in every contest, the judges were equally subject to death, and their court forfeited their jurisdiction for ever. A less perilous mode of appeal was to call the first judge who pronounced a hostile sentence into the field. If the appellant came off victorious in this challenge, the decision was reversed, but the court was not impeached. But, for denial of justice, that is, for a refusal to try his suit, the plaintiff repaired to the court of the next superior lord, and supported his appeal by testimony. Yet, even here, the witnesses might be defied, and the pure stream of justice turned, at once, into the torrent of barbarous contest.

Such was the judicial system of France, when St. Louis enacted that great code, which bears the name of his establishments. The rules of civil and criminal procedure, as well as the principles of legal decisions, are there laid down with much detail. But that incomparable prince, unable to overthrow the judicial combat, confined himself to discouraging it by the example of a wiser jurisprudence. It was abolished throughout the royal domains. The bailiffs and seneschals, who rendered justice to the king's immediate subjects, were bound to follow his own laws. He not only received appeals from their sentences in his own court of peers, but listened to all complaints with a kind of patriarchal simplicity. "Many times," says Joinville, "I have seen the good saint, after hearing mass in the summer season, lay himself at the foot of an oak in the wood of Vincennes, and make us all sit round him; when those who would, came and spake to him, without let of any officer, and he would ask aloud if there were any present who had suits, and when they appeared, would bid two of his bailiffs determine their causes on the spot."

The history of Italy, from the extinction of the Carlovingian emperors to the invasion of Naples, by Charles XII, embraces the rise of the Lombard cities, their internal wars, the arrangement of the Italian republics, their forms of government, the contentions between the nobility and people, and between Venice and Genoa, the military system of Italy, and the improvements in military science; subjects which afford ample scope for the philosopher and the politic. To us, who have been accustomed to hear of the slaughter of twenty, thirty, or even fifty thousand men in a single battle, the inoffensive wars of the Italian republics will appear singular. Thus, at the action of Zagonara, in 1423, but three persons, according to Machiavel, lost their lives, and those by suffocation in the mud. At that of Molinella, in 1467, he says no one was killed; and, in an action between the Neapolitan and Papal troops, in 1486, which lasted all day, not only no one was killed, but it is not recorded that any one was wounded. It was partly owing to the defensive arms used by the Italian armies, that war was conducted at so little personal hazard to the soldier; but another circumstance had also its influence in this respect:—

This innocence of blood, which some historians turn into ridicule, was no doubt owing, in a great degree, to the rapacity of the companies of adventure, who, in expectation of enriching themselves by the ransom of prisoners, were anxious to save their lives. Much of the humanity of modern warfare was originally due to this motive. But it was rendered more practicable by the nature of their arms. For once, and for once only in the history of mankind, the art of defence had outstripped that of destruction. In a charge of lancers, many fell, unhorsed by the shock, and might be suffocated or bruised to death by the pressure of their own armour; but the lance's point could not penetrate the breast-plate, the sword fell harmless upon the helmet, the conqueror, in the first impulse of passion, could not assail any vital part of a prostrate, but not exposed enemy. Still less was to be dreaded from the archers or cross-bowmen, who composed a large part of the infantry. The bow, indeed, as drawn by an English foot-soldier, was the most formidable of arms before the invention of gunpowder. That ancient weapon, though not perhaps common among the northern nations, nor for several centuries after their settlement, was occasionally in use before the crusades. William employed archers in the battle of Hastings. Intercourse with the east, its natural soil, during the twelfth and thirteenth ages, rendered the bow better known. But the Europeans improved on the eastern method of confining its use to cavalry. By employing infantry as archers, they gained increased size, more steady position, and surer aim for the bow. Much, however, depended

on the strength and skill of the archer. It was a peculiarly English weapon, and none of the other principal nations adopted it so generally, or so successfully. The cross-bow, which brought the strong and weak to a level, was more in favour upon the continent. This instrument, is said, by some writers, to have been introduced after the first crusade, in the reign of Louis the Fat. But, if we may trust William of Poitou, it was employed, as well as the long bow, at the battle of Hastings. Several of the popes prohibited it as a treacherous weapon; and the restriction was so far regarded, that, in the time of Philip Augustus, its use is said to have been unknown in France. By degrees, it became more general; and cross-bowmen were considered as a very necessary part of a well-organized army. But both the arrow and the quarrel glanced away from plate-armour, such as it became in the fifteenth century, impervious in every point, except when the visor was raised from the face, or some part of the body accidentally exposed. The horse, indeed, was less completely protected.

Many disadvantages attended the security against wounds, for which this armour had been devised. The enormous weight exhausted the force and crippled the limbs. It rendered the heat of a southern climate insupportable. In some circumstances, it increased the danger of death, as in the passage of a river or morass. It was impossible to compel an enemy to fight, because the least entrenchment or natural obstacle could stop such unwieldy assailants. The troops might be kept in constant alarm at night, and either compelled to sleep under arms, or run the risk of being surprised before they could rivet their plates of steel. Neither the Italians, however, nor the Transalpines, would surrender a mode of defence, which they ought to have deemed inglorious. But, in order to obviate some of its military inconveniences, as well as to give a concentration in attack, which lancers impetuously charging in a single line, according to the practice, at least, of France, in the middle ages, did not preserve, it became usual for the cavalry to dismount, and leaving their horses at some distance, to combat on foot with the lance. This practice, which must have been singularly embarrassing with the plate-armour of the fifteenth century, was introduced before it became so ponderous. It is mentioned by historians of the twelfth century, both as a German and an English custom. We find it in the wars of Edward III. Hawkwood, the disciple of that school, introduced it into Italy. And it was practised by the English, in their second wars with France, especially at the battles of Crevant and Verneuil.*

The invention of gunpowder, and its use in war, rendered the battle of armies certainly more destructive than those of the Italians, but, perhaps, less so than when the pike, the battle-axe, and the bow, were the only military weapons in use, and men were unencumbered with the defensive armour of the Italians*.

There seems little reason to doubt, that gunpowder was introduced through the means of the Saracens into Europe. Its use in engines of war, though they may seem to have been rather like our fire-works than artillery, is mentioned by an Arabic writer in the Escorial collection, about the year 1249. It was known, not long afterwards, to our philosopher Roger Bacon, though he concealed, in some degree, the secret of its composition. In the first part of the fourteenth century, cannon, or rather mortars, were invented, and the applicability of gunpowder to purposes of war was understood. Edward III. employed some pieces of artillery with considerable effect, at Crecy. But its use was still not very frequent; a circumstance which will surprise us less, when we consider the un-

* As a proof of this, it is only necessary to notice, that all the destructive battles fought during the late wars, have been those in which the charges have been made with the bayonet, and by cavalry. Musketry is seldom effective, and it has been calculated, that only one musket-shot in eighty-four takes effect.—REV.

scientific construction of artillery; the slowness with which it could be loaded; its stone balls, of uncertain aim and imperfect force, being commonly fired at a considerable elevation; and especially the difficulty of removing it from place to place during an action. In sieges, and in naval engagements, as for example, in the war of Chioggia, it was more frequently employed. Gradually, however, the new artifice of evil gained ground. The French made the principal improvements. They cast their cannon smaller, placed them on lighter carriages, and used balls of iron. They invented portable arms for a single soldier, which, though clumsy in comparison with their present state, gave an augury of a prodigious revolution in the military art. John, duke of Burgundy, in 1411, had 4000 hand-cannon, as they were called, in his army. They are found, under different names and modifications of form, for which I refer the reader to professed writers on tactics, in most of the wars, that historians of the fifteenth century record, but less in Italy than beyond the Alps. The Milanese, in 1449, are said to have armed their militia with 20,000 muskets, which struck terror into the old generals. But these muskets, supported on a rest, and charged with great delay, did less execution than our sanguinary science would require; and, uncombined with the admirable invention of the bayonet, could not in any degree resist a charge of cavalry. The pike had a greater tendency to subvert the military system of the middle ages, and to demonstrate the efficiency of disciplined infantry. Two free nations had already discomfited, by the help of such infantry, those arrogant knights on whom the fate of battles had depended; the Bohemians, instructed in the art of war, by their great master, John Zisca; and the Swiss, who, after winning their independence, inch by inch, from the house of Austria, had lately established their renown by a splendid victory over Charles of Burgundy. Louis XI. took a body of mercenaries from the United Cantons into pay. Maximilian had recourse to the same assistance; and, though the importance of infantry was not perhaps decidedly established till the Milanese wars of Louis XII., and Francis I., in the sixteenth century, yet the last years of the middle ages, according to our division, indicated the commencement of that military revolution in the general employment of pikemen and musketeers.'

The history of Spain and of Germany, during the middle ages, is less interesting than that of France and Italy. Spain, during the early part of this period, was in the possession of the Visigoths, an obscure race of barbarians, whose annals are unworthy of remembrance, and who, after retaining it nearly three centuries, yielded to the servid and irresistible enthusiasm, which, in the youthful period of Mohammedanism, distinguished the Saracens. This was in the year 712, and in the twelfth century, the Moors were finally expelled the kingdom. We shall not pursue the history of Spain further, nor enter on that of Germany, except to extract a short account of a most extraordinary individual, to whom the Protestants of Bohemia, in particular, and the reformation in general, owed much: this was Zisca, who, roused by the treacherous conduct of the Emperor Sigismund to John Huss, placed himself at the head of the Bohemians, and became terrible to his enemies:—

* An university erected by Charles, at Prague, became one of the most celebrated in Europe. John Huss, rector of the university, who had distinguished himself by opposition to many abuses then prevailing in the church, repaired to the council of Constance, under a safe conduct from the Emperor Sigismund. In violation of this pledge, to the indelible infamy of that prince and of the council, he was condemned to be burned; and his disciple, Jerome, of Prague, underwent afterwards the same fate. His countrymen, aroused by this

atrocity, flew to arms. They found at their head, one of those extraordinary men, whose genius, created by nature, and called into action by fortuitous events, appears to borrow no reflected light from that of others. John Zisca had not been trained in any school which could have initiated him in the science of war; that, indeed, except in Italy, was still rude, and no where more so than in Bohemia. But, self-taught, he became one of the greatest captains who had appeared hitherto in Europe. It renders his exploits more marvellous, that he was totally deprived of sight. Zisca has been called the inventor of the modern art of fortification; the famous mountain near Prague, fanatically called Tabor, became, by his skill, an impregnable entrenchment. For his stratagems, he has been compared to Hannibal. In battle, being destitute of cavalry, he disposed at intervals ramparts of carriages filled with soldiers, to defend his troops from the enemy's horse. His own station was by the chief standard, where, after hearing the circumstances of the situation explained, he gave his orders for the disposition of the army. Zisca was never defeated; and his genius inspired the Hussites with such enthusiastic affection, that some of those who had served under him, refused to obey any other general, and denominated themselves Orphans, in commemoration of his loss. He was indeed a ferocious enemy, though some of his cruelties might, perhaps, be extenuated by the law of retaliation; but, to his soldiers, affable and generous, dividing among them all the spoil.'

(To be continued.)

The Western Gazetteer; or, Emigrant's Directory, containing a Geographical Description of the Western States and Territories [of the United States.] With an Appendix, containing Directions to Emigrants, &c. By Samuel R. Brown. Auburn, New York. 8vo. pp. 360.

THIS work, printed in the territory of New York, contains much of information, but so strangely mixed together, that it gives no general knowledge of the country, termed the Western Country, for, of the old portion of the United States, it says nothing whatever. By emigrants, we are not to understand European emigrants, but emigrants from the Eastern to the Western country.

If we wished to have a complete proof at once, of the ambitious grasping and discontented nature of the Americans, we could not find a better. Already, at the time of their emancipating themselves from the rule of Britain, they had more territory than they could people or cultivate in a century, yet they instantly began, and have continued to drive the Indians from their habitations, and now they nominally possess more territory than they can people and cultivate in three centuries!

This rapacious disposition will greatly retard the prosperity of that country, but it is a fortunate circumstance for Europe. If the United States, such as they were in 1783, had remained satisfied with their immense territory, till it was properly peopled, and then extended Westward by degrees, the country would have been powerful and happy, and, above all, the inhabitants would have been united; but, as it is, the Eastern and Western population are not only separated by mountains, rivers, and uninhabited lands, but, very soon, they will be separated both in habits and in interests.

Ten different TERRITORIES, as Mr. Brown calls them, are described, and 'the chief objects embraced are boundaries, latitude and aspect of the country, soil, climate, diseases, vegetable, mineral, and animal productions; rivers, lakes, swamps, prairies, portages, roads, counties, settlements, and villages; population, character, and cus-

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tions of the inhabitants, Indians, antiquities, military posts, situation and price of lands, price current, trade, extent of navigable waters, expenses of travelling, directions to emigrants, &c. &c.'

There is no attempt to give a general view of the whole, or to give any general directions.

There are some curious statements relative to the antiquities, of which the following, descriptive of a village called Harrison, is a fair specimen:—

The traces of ancient population cover the earth in every direction. On the bottoms are a great number of mounds, very unequal in point of age and size. The small ones are from two to four feet above the surface, and the growth of timber upon them small, not being over one hundred years old; while the others are from ten to thirty feet high, and frequently contain trees of the largest diameters. Besides, the bones found in the small ones will bear removal, and exposure to the air, while those in the large ones are rarely capable of sustaining their own weight; and are often found in a decomposed or powdered state. There is a large mound in Mr. Allen's field, about twenty feet high, sixty feet in diameter at the base, which contains a greater proportion of bones than any one I ever before examined, as almost every shovel full of dirt would contain several fragments of a human skeleton. When on Whitewater, I obtained the assistance of several of the inhabitants, for the purpose of making a thorough examination of the internal structure of these monuments of the ancient populousness of the country. We examined from fifteen to twenty. In some, whose height were from ten to fifteen feet, we could not find more than four or five skeletons. In one, not the least appearance of a human bone was to be found. Others were so full of bones, as to warrant the belief, that they originally contained at least one hundred dead bodies; children of different ages, and the full grown, appeared to have been piled together promiscuously. We found several scull, leg, and thigh bones, which plainly indicated that their possessors had been men of gigantic stature. The scull of one skeleton was one-fourth of an inch thick; and the teeth remarkably even, sound, and handsome, all firmly planted. The fore teeth were very deep, and not so wide as those of the generality of white people. Indeed, there seemed a great degree of regularity in the form of the teeth, in all the mounds. In the progress of our researches, we obtained ample testimony, that these masses of earth were formed by a *savage people*; yet, doubtless, possessing a greater degree of civilization than the present race of Indians. We discovered a piece of glass weighing five ounces, resembling the bottom of a tumbler, but concave; several *stone axes*, with grooves near their heads to receive a withe, which unquestionably served as helves; arrows, formed from flint, almost exactly similar to those in use among the present Indians; several pieces of earthen ware; some appeared to be parts of vessels holding six or eight gallons; others were obviously fragments of jugs, jars, and cups; some were plain, while others were curiously ornamented with figures of birds and beasts, drawn while the clay or material, of which they were made, was soft, and before the process of glazing was performed. The *glazier's art* appears to be well understood by the potters, who manufactured this aboriginal *crockery*. The smaller vessels were made of pounded or pulverized muscle shells, mixed with an earthen or flinty substance, and the large ones of clay and sand. There was no appearance of iron; one of the sculls was found pierced by an arrow, which was still sticking in it, driven about half way through before its force was spent. It was about six inches long. The subjects of this mound were doubtless killed in battle, and hastily buried. In digging to the bottom of them, we invariably came to a stratum of ashes, from six inches to two feet thick, which rests on the original earth. These ashes contain coals, fragments of brands, and pieces of *calcined bones*. From the quantity of ashes and bones, and the appearance of the earth underneath, it is evi-

dent, that large fires must have been kept burning for several days previous to commencing the mound, and that a considerable number of human victims must have been sacrificed, by burning, on the spot! Prisoners of war were, no doubt, selected for this horrid purpose. Perhaps the custom of the age rendered it a signal honour, for the chieftains and most active warriors to be interred, by way of triumph, on the ashes of their enemies, whom they had vanquished in war. If this was not the case, the mystery can only be solved by supposing that the fanaticism of the priests and prophets excited their besotted followers to voluntary self-devotion. The soil of the mounds is always different from that of the immediately surrounding earth—being uniformly of a soft vegetable mould or loam, and containing no stones or other hard substances, to “press upon the dead and disturb their repose.”

Almost every building lot in Harrison village, contains a small mound; and some as many as three. On the neighbouring hills, north east of the town, are a number of the remains of stone houses. They were covered with soil, brush, and full-grown trees. We cleared away the earth, roots, and rubbish from one of them, and found it to have been anciently occupied as a dwelling. It was about twelve feet square; the walls had fallen nearly to the foundation. They appeared to have been built of rough stones, like our stone walls; not the least trace of any iron tools having been employed to smooth the face of them, could be perceived. At one end of the building, we came to a regular hearth, containing ashes and coals; before which we found the bones of eight persons of different ages, from a small child to the heads of the family. The positions of their skeletons clearly indicated, that their deaths were sudden and simultaneous. They were probably asleep, with their feet towards the fire, when destroyed by an enemy, an earthquake, or pestilence.’

As to the general fertility, productions, and climate of America, we know nothing from this work. All the facts are local, and relative to some particular spot. Were any person to take the trouble to reduce the information in the book, to a clear sort of method and order, it might be useful.

The paper is the worst on which we ever saw any book printed, and does no great credit to the United States, but, *utility* is the motto of those men of the new world, when you observe that any thing is coarse or in bad taste. If, on the contrary, you have occasion to praise the taste or quality of any thing of their making, they will tell you, that, in true taste, they far surpass the inhabitants of Europe.

Foreign Literature.

LEARNED SOCIETIES IN THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

In a former number, we gave an account of the newspapers and periodical journals in the Russian empire, and we now proceed to notice the principal learned societies for the promotion of the arts and sciences; these are fifteen in number.

1. *The Free Economic Society*, which is one of the oldest learned societies in Russia, having existed more than sixty years. Its publications, which are above twenty in number, contain much valuable information respecting economy, technology, and agriculture.

2. *The Society of Admirers of the Russian Language*.—This society was formed, some years ago, by Admiral Schischkow, president of the Royal Academy. The society reckons the best Russian authors among its members, and the works which it publishes contain many useful articles.

3. The Free Society of Friends of the Sciences, Arts, and Literature.—This society has existed above fifteen years. In the year 1812, it published a journal under the title of the *St. Petersburg Messenger*, when political circumstances put a stop to this useful undertaking.

4. The Society for the Promotion of Knowledge and Beneficence, has been founded about a year, by young men, and is, therefore, in its infancy.

5. The Military Society, which was formed some years ago, by officers of the general staff of the Imperial guard. Its object is to diffuse useful knowledge, relative to the art of war, among the young officers.

All these societies are in St. Petersburg; the five following are in Moscow.

6. The Naturalist's Society, which united, in 1815, with the Botanical Society, at Horenky. Its works are published under the title of *Memoires*, and contain much curious and novel information.

7. The Society for the Communication and Improvement of the Physico-Medical Sciences.—It publishes its works in two distinct series; one in the Latin language, for those who devote themselves to the study of medicine, and another in the Russian language, in which only such articles are admitted as are designed to be made known to the public.

8. The Society of Friends of Russian History and Antiquities counts among its members many learned and celebrated men, and has published many valuable works, particularly in the historical department.

9. The Society of Lovers of Russian Literature holds public meetings every month, which are numerously attended, not only by its members, who are the most distinguished writers in Russia, but also by many ladies.

10. The Agricultural Society began its labours early last year, for the improvement of Russian agriculture, and other branches of rural economy. This society has an agricultural school, which is intended to form skilful bailiffs, stewards, &c. for the land owners. Every land owner, who sends one of his sons as a pupil, pays 400 roubles for his education. This society is calculated to render the most beneficial service to the Russian empire, and is liberally patronized.

In Riga, there are two learned societies:—

11. The Livonian Free Economical Society, which was founded and endowed with a considerable capital, between the years 1790 and 1800, by a patriotic nobleman, P. H. Von Blankenhagen. Its members are the principal landed proprietors of the province, who endeavour, by every possible means, to promote agriculture.

12. The Literary Practical Society.

In Casan, there is the society of

13. The Admirers of National History, which has existed about twelve or fourteen years, and published many volumes containing interesting and useful papers, as well as many political essays.

The last societies we shall notice, are those of Charcow:

14. The Philotechnic Society, whose object is to extend and improve the knowledge of rural economy and technology. It consists chiefly of landed proprietors in the Ukraine, who contribute to promote the objects of the society, both by their practical experiments and pecuniary assistance.

15. The Society of Lovers of the Sciences, which consists chiefly of members of the university, and has been lately established.

Besides these, there are, in Russia, several other learned societies, as, for instance, the *Medical Society*, at Wilna; the *Society of Lovers of the Russian Language*, at Janslau, &c.

The number of ecclesiastical places of instruction throughout the Russian empire, is fifty-eight; of which four are universities, thirty-six seminaries, and eighteen secondary schools. Besides the doctrines of religion, the Russian language and arithmetic are taught there. Upwards of twenty-thousand young people are instructed, for the greater part, at the expense of government. The number of students in the universities is four thousand, under fifty professors; the number in the seminaries is two thousand, under two hundred and sixty-seven professors, and in the secondary schools, two thousand under eighty masters.

Original Communications.

ON THE RIGHT OF THE LIVERY TO MEET IN COMMON HALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE LITERARY CHRONICLE.

SIR,—Few subjects are more important to London readers, and to the country at large, (which always takes a great interest in the proceedings of the corporation of London,) than the present question as to the rights of the Liverymen; and, at a time when so little is really known on the subject, the public is much indebted for the valuable information you have communicated.

There seems to be a very mistaken opinion, that the right of the Livery to meet in Common Hall is either a chartered right, or that there is some specific law existing which declares it, and much disappointment is evinced that such law cannot be found. This, Sir, I conceive to be a great mistake, and that the right of the Livery is not less certain because it is not founded on a legal enactment. It is, in the first place, a natural right belonging to all communities; and, in the second place, it is confirmed to the Livery by the immemorial and undisputed usage of many centuries. Since I read the article in your last number, I have seen a letter, addressed by Mr. Alderman Waithman to the Livery of London, on the same subject; but which, like the worthy gentleman's speeches, is more distinguished for declamation than argument. There are, however, some parts in it deserving of notice. You will observe that, by this letter, the alderman wishes to recommend a similar proceeding, on the part of the Livery, to the precedent of 1769, quoted in your last; that of the Livery taking the subject into consideration on the ensuing Michaelmas day; and, from the information I have been able to obtain, there is no doubt but that this will be the case. How the Lord Mayor will act on such an occasion I know not, but nothing appears to me more decisive, than that the Livery have a right to transact such business as they think proper, and that neither the Lord Mayor nor the Sheriffs have the power or authority to dissolve or adjourn the meeting. In the tract reprinted in your last number, this point is very satisfactorily argued; and it has since been confirmed by the highest law authorities. This will further appear from an extract from Alderman Waithman's letter on the nature of this corporate body:—

'The Corporation of London consists of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city of London, and it can neither sue nor be sued in any other name. The Common-

Council is a branch emanating from the body corporate; they are elected annually by the citizen householders; they have distinct rights and duties; but they are not named in any charter, nor are even the Aldermen named in any of the earlier charters. The great body corporate comprises the whole; it elects, in Common Hall assembled, the Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, Representatives, Chamberlain, (who is the purse-bearer or banker,) and four auditors, who audit his accounts, and report annually to the Common Hall, besides other officers.'

With regard to the proceedings in 1676, which the newspapers had certainly mixed up with those which took place in 1769, Mr. Waithman thus states them:—

'On Midsummer day, 1676, when the Livery were assembled for the election of officers, an independent Liveryman had the courage to stand up, and, addressing his fellow-citizens, observed, that it was of no use to elect officers to protect their rights, unless they had rights to protect; and, therefore, proposed, before going into the election, to come to some resolution to petition for redress of grievances, in consequence of the Lord Mayor having refused to call a Common Council, of which he was also a member, for that purpose. This proposition was agreed to; for the court sycophants of those disastrous times, a little before a Russell and a Sydney became martyrs to the cause of liberty, did not dare to obstruct him; afterwards, however, he was, in consequence thereof, taken before the king in council, as a disaffected person, enemy to social order, mover of sedition in the city, and so forth, where he nobly defended himself. His character and conduct were duly appreciated by the Parliament, who soon after passed the Habeas Corpus Act, in consequence of the oppression experienced by this individual; and, after the revolution, the proceedings against him were stigmatised as arbitrary and illegal.'

The right of the Livery to debate on public grievances, has been strengthened by the legal opinions of Dunning and Wedderburne, and by Serjeant Glyn, when Recorder of the City of London, as will appear by the following extract from the London Chronicle.

'On Michaelmas day, 1773, Mr. Allen requested Mr. Serjeant Glyn to give his opinion, as recorder, upon this question, "whether the Livery, assembled in Common Hall, had or had not a right to enter upon the consideration of any matter relative to their privileges, or in which their interests as a public body were materially concerned?" To this question the Recorder declared himself extremely willing to give an immediate and explicit reply. He said, "that, in his opinion, there could be no ground for a doubt, but that the Livery had a right, when assembled in Common Hall, to discuss any matter appertaining to their public concerns." "Whether the business proposed at any time to be agitated in Common Hall, is or is not connected with your privileges, that, gentleman," said the Recorder, "must be left to our determination; but should you concur in opinion that it is material, the right to discuss it is most unquestionably vested in you." This opinion was recorded.'

Another case, quoted in the letter I have just alluded to, is illustrative of this right of the Livery; it occurred during the mayoralty of Sir Brooke Watson, who had dissolved a Common Hall, upon the ground, that a resolution offered did not come within the requisition; and, upon another requisition, refused to call a Common Hall; but failing to get his decision confirmed by the Common Council, who declined to interfere, and, being thus thrown on his own responsibility, he did *call a hall*. The Livery strongly resented this conduct, and, in a protest presented to him, they, among other things, stated as a reason:—

"Because the right of calling Common Halls, otherwise than for the express purpose of choosing officers, is vested in the Chief Magistrate, and when important and alarming circumstances have occurred to make it necessary or prudent, to take into consideration circumstances peculiar to the times, such right hath not been exercised by the Chief Magistrate, as an *absolute right in him*, but when required by a respectable number of the Livery, to convene a Common Hall, it hath been, with very few exceptions, granted as of *right and justice*." And when the Common Hall had assembled, they passed a strong vote of censure upon him, which he put himself, and declared to be carried in the affirmative. It will appear from what has been stated, that as far as regards a Common Hall, the Lord Mayor is merely its chairman; that, like every other public assembly, it is master of its own proceedings; that it ever has, both prior to and since the revolution, taken into its consideration, on Midsummer, Michaelmas, or any other day, matters of public grievance; even a common vestry meeting cannot be dissolved by a churchwarden, or other officer, as was determined in the case of St. Pancras, by a court of law, some time since. The Common Hall has, on various occasions, exercised this right.'

The cases enumerated by Mr. Waithman, are, those of Midsummer and Michaelmas 1769, noticed in your last number. Midsummer days, 1771, 1773, and 1775, and the Michaelmas day of the same year, when, although only met for the purpose of choosing a Lord Mayor, the Livery moved 'An Address to the Electors of Great Britain, on the American War.'

That the Livery, on the ensuing Michaelmas day, will enforce their right of discussing what subject they please, I doubt not, but, as these occasions of their meeting to elect their officers are not frequent, and might be so distant from the time necessary to discuss some subjects, as to be of little service, it is much to be regretted, that the question of right is not settled beyond the control of a Lord Mayor; and I hope the Livery will not stop short, until they place that right on so clear and satisfactory a footing, that it shall never again be obstructed, but, at the peril of him who dares to attempt it; not the peril of the indignation of his fellow citizens only, for even that is not sufficient to deter some individuals, but that a still higher penalty shall be inflicted on those who violate the rights of the corporation of our city.

Sept. 21.

I am, &c.

A LIVERYMAN.

ADVICE TO ACTORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE LITERARY CHRONICLE.

SIR,—As the winter season of the theatres is approaching, and as one of them has already commenced, I take the opportunity of addressing a few words of advice, through the medium of your valuable publication, to those by whose abilities these places of amusement are supported, on a most unbecoming habit, into which the actors—I mean of comedy—have fallen; namely, that of laughing, with the audience, at any ludicrous character with whom they may be engaged, though, at the same time, the parts they themselves sustain, may be such as to require them to disregard or treat him with contempt.

I have seen more than one of the performers, by giving way to this disposition, obliged to turn away to conceal his risibility. Affectation must have a large share in this excessive display of sensitiveness—yet the actors are mistaken in supposing they excite interest by it for themselves, or that their calling it more forcibly forth for their brother actor, is appreciated by the audience, who, though they

may, at first, forget the offence in their own mirth, will not endure it if too often repeated, and should a few *hisses* strike the ear of the performer, he need not be at a loss to what cause to attribute it.

He who is, or appears to be, the origin of this insult—for so it must be called—on the public, is frequently likewise to blame; those who have sat in the front rows of the pit, may have observed the many attempts made by him to overturn the gravity of the best disposed, by sundry side glances, winks, &c. &c. and while engaged in this trifling pursuit, he neglects the effect he might have made on those whom it is his business to divert, and who, seeing themselves out of the joke, cannot but feel indifferent, and not unfrequently depart in disgust, leaving them to enjoy it by themselves.

One gentleman in particular, who sustains parts of some consequence, at Covent Garden, and whose talents deserve better regulation, would do well to take this counsel—as it is well meant—into serious consideration, and the next time he plays *Colonel Mannering*, he will find it much more effective, if he commands his countenance, and leaves the audience to laugh at the *Dominie*.

How long will these perverse children neglect the instruction of the best of tutors! Though so well known to them, they yet will disregard his advice; let those who esteem the great master—nay, the creator of their profession, (and can there be a *true* actor who does not?) reflect on what he says, and let it not—‘pass by them as the idle wind, which they regard not.’

‘Hamlet. Oh, reform it altogether. And let those who play your clowns, speak no more than is set down for them. For there be of them, that will themselves laugh, to set on some quantity of barren spectators to laugh too; though, in the mean time, some necessary question of the play be then to be considered; that is villainous; and shows a most pitiful ambition in the fool that uses it.’

I am, &c.

C.

DESCRIPTION OF LOUGH DERG IN IRELAND.

POPISH PENANCES.

[In the notice of Mr. Gamble's Views of Society in Ireland, in our 17th number, we alluded to the following article, which contains a very curious and circumstantial account of the remarkable penances imposed upon credulous Roman Catholics in Ireland, so late as the middle of the last century.—ED.]

* In the county of Donegal, at the distance of four miles from Lough Ewens, and in the midst of mountains and moresses, extending every way to a considerable distance, there is a very fine lake, in ancient times called Lough Fins, or White Lake. This piece of water is about a mile and a half in breadth, and somewhat more in length. To an island near the centre of it, from the beginning of May until about the middle of August every year, Popish penitents resort from all parts of Ireland, to expiate their sins. This they do in obedience to their confessors, who may enjoin them any other penance, at their discretion, nearer home. The number, therefore, of these pilgrims who take this tour, depends more on the friendship of distant priests to the prior of Lough-Derg, than on the opinion of superior efficacy in this particular expiation. However, to keep up that opinion, and to give a countenance to the lucrative practice founded on it, the priests frequently, the titular bishops sometimes, and now and then a Romanist of some fashion, appear among the penitents. The rest are all of the poorer sort, to the number of three or four thousand every year. Of these the greater part are only

proxies for wealthier people, who, at a small expense in cash, thus discharge their sins, through the feet and knees of their indigent neighbours.

‘As soon as a pilgrim hath arrived at the summit of a neighbouring mountain, from whence the holy lake is to be seen, he or she is obliged to uncover both hands and feet; thus to walk to the water side, and thence, at the expence of six-pence, to be wafted into the island. On this are erected two chapels and fifteen other houses, all thatched, for the accommodation of priests and penitents. To these houses there are several confessionals, so contrived that the priests cannot see the person who disburtheneth his conscience. Each pilgrim on landing here is confessed anew, and enjoined a longer or shorter station (so the performance of this penance is called) according to the quality of his sins, his leisure, or the judgment of his confessor. He subsists on oatmeal, sometimes made into bread, and on water, during his stay in the island, which lasts three, six, or nine days, as the station is more or less extended.

‘To have a right idea of that part of the penance now to be mentioned, it must first be told, that there are seven heaps of rude stones, with each of them a cross at top, about five or six yards from one another. At a couple of yards distance from each, is a circular row of the like stones, not above a yard in height, drawn round the central heap, with a little gap or passage on one side. The pilgrim is obliged to foot it, without shoes or stockings, nine times round the outside of each row, on a path consisting of very rough and sharp stones, and must by no means pick his steps, for this would hinder the emission of his sins at the soles of his feet, their proper outlet; and besides, divide his attention from the Ave Maries and Paternosters, whereof he is to mutter a certain number, letting fall a bead at each as he circulates; for on the holy string depends the arithmetic of a devotion which has number, but no weight. These heaps and rows are called the beds of so many celebrated saints in the Roman calendar.

‘When this is over, and the penitent's conscience and pocket are called to a fresh account, (for every day, sometimes more than once a day, he confesses and pays six-pence) he is sent to traverse on his bare knees, and on stones as sharp as before, the shorter paths within each row, and round the little heap nine times, repeating Ave Maries and dropping beads till his account is out, at which he kisses the cross, and his knees make holiday. After this preparation, he is admitted into purgatory, which is in reality nothing more than two parallel rows of pretty large stones, set upright, at the distance of scarcely three feet, with others as large laid over, and all together forming a kind of narrow vault, of not more than four feet elevation; pervious here and there to the light. This vault is only so long as to hold twelve penitents at once, who sit close to one another in a row, with their chins almost touching their knees, without eating, drinking, or sleeping, for the space of twenty-four hours, repeating and dropping beads as above. To prevent, in this situation, the danger of a nap, each penitent is armed with a long pin, more pungent, it should seem, than conscience herself, to be suddenly inserted into the elbow of his next neighbour, at the first approach of a nod. But not to depend wholly on either, the priest hath inserted into his mind an article of faith more stimulating than even the pin; namely, that if any penitent should fall asleep in purgatory, the devil thereby acquires a right to the whole covey, having already swept away two, and having a prophecy in his favour, that he shall get a third. To this is sometimes added an extraordinary exposure or two, in cases uncommonly criminal, such as setting the delinquents to roost on beams that go across the chapel, with their busts sticking through the thatch.

‘The sufferings here mentioned do not carry off the whole mass of sins. Some are forced through the feet, some through the knees, but the remainder is so softened and loosened, that a good washing is sufficient to scour them away. In order to this, the penitent is placed on a flat stone in the lake, where standing in the water up to his breast or chin, according to his stature, and repeating and dropping beads to a considerable

amount, he is reduced to the innocence of a child just christened.

'When all is over, the priest bores a gimblet-hole through the pilgrim's staff near the top, in which he fastens a cross peg; gives him as many holy pebbles out of the lake as he cares to carry away, for amulets to be presented to his friends, and so dismisses him, an object of veneration to all other papists, not thus initiated, who no sooner see the Pilgrim's Cross in his hands, than they kneel down to get his blessing.'

Original Poetry.

THE KING.

TIME has not long slid by since heaven's pure star
Set with her satellite behind his wing;
Not long since, Death renew'd the royal war,
And slew the wife of our afflicted king.

Howe'er young pleasures elevate my hope
Of bliss,—and echoes answer every string
Of music warbling round my harp's wide scope,—
Still I remember our afflicted king.

Whene'er I count the scenes of human pride,
Where myriads join in love and beauty's ring;
The sigh, or e'en the tear, has ne'er denied
My sympathy for our afflicted king.

If be that sympathy espous'd in vain,
Nor to his sight or mental vigour bring
Terrestrial joy; Remembrance shall retain
Her voice for Britain's venerable king.

J. R. P.

TO EMMA.

DEAREST Emma, why not hear me,
Why thus turn thine eyes away;
Dost thou love, or dost thou fear me,
Is it joy or anger, say?
Tho' I now, those stolen kisses,
Have by force obtain'd from thee,
'Twas thy lips, which, teeming blisses
Tempting, almost madden'd me.

When I see thy cheeks, where roses
Have bestow'd their blooming hue;
When I see where love reposest
On thy lips nectareous dew;
Where the little urchin nestling,
Scornful laughs to see my pain;
Though my love's with prudence wrestling,
Yet I never can refrain.

Then why frown, when thou hast tempted
With what would a stoic move,
Surely I must be exempted,
Who with brightest ardour love.
Think not, dearest, I could tease thee,
Or, e'er give thy bosom pain;
No, by heaven's! if 'twill please thee,
Give them to me back again.

J. D. NEWMAN.

LINES TO THOMAS DIBDIN, ESQ.

OF THE SURREY THEATRE,

On witnessing the performance of 'The President, and the Peasant's Daughter.'

'The drama's laws, the drama's patrons give,
And they who live to please, must please to live.'—JOHNSON.

In vain the rose its early bud might rear,
Should Sol refuse th' op'ning flow'r to cheer;

In vain the lily lifts its modest head,
If no kind ray its quick'ning influence shed;
In vain the infant cry, when in distress,
Did no maternal balm the tear suppress?
E'en so, in vain would genius strive to rise,
And, eagle-like, explore fame's tow'ring skies,
If all refused to stretch the fosc'ring hand,
And bid the structure on a basis stand;
Did all refuse to help th' aspiring cause,
Greet with their smiles, encourage by applause.

But thou, fam'd Dibdin, hast not been forgot;—
Pre-eminent, indeed, has been thy lot
Amidst the throng, competitors for fame,
Who daily labour for an author's name;
Long has the laurelled chaplet bound thy brow,
In times gone past, in day's existing now,
And high upon the list of its compeers,
Mid Lothian stands, eliciting our tears;
But not our tears alone,—the task was thine
To bid the sunny smiles through dew-drops shine,
Eyes, ears, and hearts, its banners did enlist,—
Who could such genuine excellence resist?

Time would but ill assist the arduous plan,
The merits of thy many works to scan;
But there is one, and that of latest birth;—
One that abounds with real intrinsic worth;—
'The President' 'tis called; a prince's chief—
Annexed to this, a 'Peasant's Daughter's' grief—
Full well hast thou detected envy's arts,
And blunted all her ill-intended darts;
Here base calumniators stand exposed,
And justice is to all alike disposed;
Julius confirmed a President for life,
And Henrietta made a happy wife.

One word to those who personate the scene,
And add such lustre to the author's sheen;
Fair 'Taylor' thou must first adorn my theme,
Thy piercing powers, by nature made, 't would seem,
To make all hearts thy magic influence own,
For few have seen thee, and thy charms not known;
May 'Taylor' live through many happy days,
But never know one sorrow she portrays;
One little line for 'Copeland' I reserve;
How many greater lines does she deserve!
A truly noble daughter did she make,
She wedded too,—I wish'd it for her sake.

By stern unbounding rectitude of way,
'Huntley' 'twas thine correctly to display
A certain rare and most uncommon thing,
A proper favourite of a prince or king!
One who would bend to death or deep disgrace,
Rather than wear a flatterer's hateful face;
Thy sufferings for a time, indeed, were hard,
But then 'Rosaura' was thy bright reward.
Repentant 'Ferdinand' was placed in hands,
Whose energy my warm applause demands,
And for the reparation which he made,
'Watkins' received a charm that will not fade.

Ah! 'Jacob Spindler' can I thee forget?
A village carpenter wast thou; and yet
'Fitzwilliam' I would call thee; such other
Clever son of 'Brookes,' thy clever mother,
I know not of;—thou did'st excite my mirth,
And aught but that may'est thou ne'er find on earth.
'Clifford' did well a father's grief depict,
On whom a daughter could such woe inflict.
The 'Major's' pamphlets did my laughter raise;
Nor must the 'Chainberlain' be shorn of praise;
They each, I trust, a wholesome lesson learnt,
That rogues and tomahawks should both be burnt.

Not least, though last, 'Prince Xavian' claims a share
Of my applaudings, (feeble as they are :)
Each noble sentiment in him was found,
Which ever should in sovereigns abound ;
Dignity and grace illuminated ev'ry act,
And, 'Gomery,' well did'st thou the part enact.

My task, good sir, I have concluded now,
And make to you, and all, my farewell bow ;
These and thy *corps dramatique* I have named,
And where I do not praise, I have not blamed ;
These lines, at least, will be a record true,
Of pleasure giv'n by means of them and you.
Here may prosperity erect her seat,
And countless blessings rise from 'neath her feet ;
May you and your's, with all in your employ,
Long bask in sunshine of unclouded joy ;
And each new piece, *like this*, to praise give vent,
'The Peasant's Daughter and the President.'

September, 1819.

L.

Fine Arts.

LITHOGRAPHY.

IT is a matter of surprize to me, that the science of lithography, so intimately connected with the fine arts, should have so long laid torpid (if I may use the term.) It has been stated, that this science was invented in Germany, twenty years ago, but I have strong reason to conclude, that the invention is of a much older date. Some very rare lithographic specimens, in my possession, convince me that this science was known two or three centuries ago, and Albert Durer particularly excelled in it. The peculiar advantages which lithography affords to the painter, will doubtless ensure its future success. The artist may first sketch his outline on the stone, and afterwards apply his finer touches, until the representation of the object be in a perfect state, he may then cause the untouched parts of the stone to be corroded, apply his ink, press the engraving, and his double work, of painter and engraver, is complete. He incurs not the expense of submitting his drawing to the plate engraver. He subjects not his production to the errors of the etching tools, nor to the want of skill on the part of the engraver. A strong prejudice has existed against this science; but I know of no production or invention, new or revived, which has not been condemned by the same sort of prejudice. Some of the engravings from Ackerman's lithographic press, unquestionably prove the perfection and beauty of which this science is capable. The same may be said of the fine works printed by Moser: the portrait of the noble bard of 'Childe Harolde' has been very generally admired, for its strength of expression and fineness of execution. The portrait of the bust of Paris, by Canova*, printed by Moser, (although the nose is, perhaps, a little too much of the pug kind,) also has merit. The minute decorations of ornament are capable of being beautifully impressed by the lithographist. It is not to the artist only, that this science is applicable: the manuscript and letter-press printer, &c. will find the engraving on stone a saving in expense, and the most correct mode of delineation. It has been said, that this art was applied by the Duke of Wellington, to the purpose of taking sketches of the military positions, to be sent with instructions, &c. during the late war in the peninsula, but I think this statement of its usefulness

has been stretched too far, since the time necessarily taken for its completion, added to its novelty and execution, would not have well suited the camp of a generalissimo.

* * * T.

The Drama.

DRURY LANE THEATRE.—Convinced as we are that all monopolies are generally injurious, and that it is only by a spirited but honourable rivalry, even in dramatic entertainments, that the public can be well gratified, we hail with pleasure the early opening of that once highly favoured establishment, Drury Lane Theatre. The short period since Mr. Elliston became the lessee, has been devoted to rendering this theatre worthy the support of the public, and what is of the highest importance is, that Mr. E. is so sensible of the disadvantage of these large houses, that he pledges himself that 'the whole of the interior shall be rebuilt next year, reducing the size and extending the convenience of the public.' This is as it should be, and we hope the time is not far distant when we shall be able to *hear*, as well as *see*, the performers of these grand establishments. In the list of performers under engagement at this theatre, we find the names of the following favorites: Kean, Dowton, Munden, Harley, Oxberry, Russell, Knight, Braham, Mr. T. Cooke, Mrs. W. West, Mrs. Egerton, Mrs. Mardyn, Mrs. Edwin, Mrs. Bland, Miss Kelly, Miss Carew. Several new performers are also engaged in the different departments of tragedy, comedy, and opera, among whom is Mr. Vandenhoff, of the Liverpool theatre. This gentleman was highly spoken of by a correspondent, in our eighth number, p. 128. The house opens on the 4th of next month.

COVENT GARDEN.—This theatre, since its opening, has played operas and tragedies, which have usually been so much better filled, that it was too much to expect them to be successful; and it is really no disparagement to Miss M. Tree to say, that she does not play Lucy Bertram, Diana Vernon, or Susanna in the Marriage of Figaro, so well as Miss Stephens; they are all vocal characters, and depend alone on vocal talents; and although Philips possesses considerable merit, who would not be disappointed in hearing him sing 'Scots wha ha' wi' Wallace bled,' after the imitable performance of Braham. It is to these causes alone that the popular operas of Guy Mannering and Rob Roy have gone off tamely. In the former, Philips's Henry Bertram was a complete failure; of Miss Tree we can speak favourably, every performance has confirmed the good opinion we entertained of her, and it is only by the injudicious contrast with Miss Stephens that she can suffer. The comedy of the Steward increases in attraction; this is principally owing to the very excellent performance of the principal characters.

ENGLISH OPERA HOUSE.—As the season at this theatre draws towards a close, the house becomes better frequented; whether this is owing to the heat of the dog days being past, or that, like friends whose value increases in our estimation as the prospect of separation approaches, we know not; but of one thing we are certain, that there are few theatres, managers, or performers, more worthy of public patronage.

On Wednesday night last, a most crowded audience witnessed the representation of the *Beggars Opera*. The part of Macheath had been assigned to Mr. Davis, the

* See Fine Arts, Literary Chronicle, No. 10.

gentleman who made a successful *début* in *Don Carlos*, last week; but an apology was made for him, on account of a hoarseness, and Mr. Pearman resumed the character, which he has so often filled with great ability. We never heard him in better voice, and he gave the delightful airs of this first of operas in excellent style. *Dowton's Lockit*, *Chatterly's Peachum*, and *Miss Kelly's Lucy Lockit*, have been too often criticised, and their excellence are too well known, to need particular notice.

The critic of the *Morning Herald*, who had not been at the theatre, and, what is still more unfortunate, was ignorant of the change which had taken place in Mr. Pearman performing *Macheath* instead of Mr. Davis, has made a most delightful blunder; and, taking it for granted that the latter gentleman had sustained the character originally assigned to him, thus criticizes his performance in the *Herald of Thursday*:—‘The gentleman who made his *début* last week as *Don Carlos*, appeared last night, for the first time, as *Macheath*. He looked the character very well, but his vocal performance affords no reason to change the opinion we have already given of the extent of his powers!!!’

SURREY THEATRE.—The season of benefits having commenced, that part of our duty which is termed theatrical criticism of course ceases, yet we do not conceive that we should omit noticing the public expression of patronage shewn on these occasions to the numerous theatrical artists, who solicit the continuance and support of their kind friends. On Monday last, *The Abbot of San Martino* and *The Russian Boy*, with other entertainments, were performed to a very crowded house, for the benefit of that very deserving favourite, Mr. Huntley, who exhibited himself to the greatest advantage as the Abbot and Giraldi Duval, his first appearance in the latter character.

On Wednesday, an equally overflowing house witnessed *Don Giovanni*, for the benefit of Mr. Watkins, a young actor of considerable promise, and one who, with care, may, in a few years, attain a very prominent situation in the dramatic line. ‘Tis thus that merit, though cloistered in a minor theatre, brings to itself a due reward; and Mr. Dibdin must feel much inward satisfaction in witnessing the powerful efforts of his company to second his endeavours, thus appreciated and correspondingly recompensed by a discerning and generous public.

Among the engagements for the ensuing winter season at this house, are Mr. and Mrs. W. Chatterley, Mr. Bengough, Mrs. Horne, and Mr. Payne, from Liverpool.

Literary and Scientific Intelligence.

Shakespeare.—On Monday, the 6th inst., being the 50th year from Garrick’s Jubilee, a lecture upon the peculiar and characteristic merits of the ‘Bard of Avon,’ was read at the town hall, Stratford, by Mr. Britton, the antiquary. The lecture is stated to have been the composition of Mr. Neede, and dwelt much on the difference betwixt wit and humour in dramatic writing.

New Hygrometer.—An instrument of extremely susceptible powers has been recently invented by a Mr. Adie, composed of a small bag made of the internal membranes of the *arundo phragmites*, and fitted like a bulb to the lower end of a thermometer tube. It is then filled with quicksilver, which rises and falls in the tube, agreeably to the rapid and very sensible changes that take place in the contraction and dilation of the membrane, from the humidity or dryness of the atmosphere.

The inventor proposes to form convenient portable hygrometers, by employing a slip of this membrane, and attaching its extremities to the end of a lever, something like the small pocket thermometers.

New Barometer.—The same gentleman, (Mr. Adie,) has invented an instrument which he calls a sympiesometer, for the purpose of indicating any of those minute changes in the weight of the atmosphere, which might be supposed to arise from the action of the sun and moon. Its principle depends upon measuring the pressure of the atmosphere by its effect in compressing a column of common air. For this purpose are employed an elastic fluid or gas, different from air, (hydrogen is best,) and any liquid, except quicksilver, not liable to be acted upon by the gas which it confines, nor by the air, to a contact with which it is in some measure exposed. This liquid, as used, is an unctuous oil—almond oil, coloured with anchusa root. The whole is inclosed in a tube with double bulbs, and fitted to a common thermometer.

On drinking cold water in warm weather, or when heated by exercise.—Avoid drinking whilst warm, or drink only a small quantity at once, and let it remain a short time in the mouth before swallowing it; or wash the hands and face, and rinse the mouth with cold water before drinking. If these precautions have been neglected, and the disorder incident to drinking cold water has taken place, the best remedy is to administer sixty drops of liquid laudanum in spirits and water, or warm drink of any kind; if this should not afford relief, the same quantity of laudanum may be given in twenty minutes afterwards. When laudanum cannot be obtained, rum and water should be given.—*Report of Royal Society.*

The Bee.

Floriferis ut apes in saltibus omnia limant,
Omnia nos itidem depascinur aurea dicta!

LUCRETIUS.

Bad News.—As a curious specimen of the rapidity with which bad news travels, and the amazing growth which it acquires on the road, we may mention, that an account of a riot in Glasgow reached London on the Friday, and Paris on the Saturday, by the aid of the telegraph, where it was stated, that the people had broken open the prison, and that the utmost alarm prevailed in London.

Kleber, in speaking of Bonaparte, used to call him *a general of ten thousand men per day*—referring to the little value he set upon the life of his soldiers.

Inscription on a direction post near a dangerous part of a road in Cornwall:—

KEE
PONT
HISS
IDE.

The antiquaries had long puzzled themselves with this inscription, when a countryman discovered it to mean—‘Keep on this side.’

An itinerant preacher, who rambled quite as much in his sermons as in his travels, on being requested to keep to his text, replied, ‘that scattering shot would hit the most birds.’

Judge Rooke, in going the western circuit, had a large stone thrown at him, but from the circumstance of his stooping very much, it passed over his head: ‘You see,’ said he to his friends, ‘that had I been an upright judge, I might have been killed.’

EPIGRAM.

Two Hervey had a separate wish
To shine in separate stations:
The one invented *sauce for fish*—
The other—*meditations*.

Each has his pungent powers applied
To aid the dead and dying:
That relishes a soul when fried—
This saves a soul from frying.

A Hypocrite, says Butler, hides his vices as a dog does his meat when his belly is full, until he has a fresh appetite, and then he knows where to treat himself again.—*A credulous person* is like a pitcher born by the ears, empty of itself, but apt to hold whatever is put into it.

Poverty.

How desolate the poor man's path is left!
O, where's the sceptre like grim Poverty;
Whose withering shade, at height of noon, can scare
The populous street, making its way a desert,
And leave the gaunt and lonely form to watch
His own sad steps.

The Venders of The Literary Chronicle are particularly requested to observe, that, in future, The Literary Chronicle will be published by J. Limbird, 53, Holywell Street, Strand; where communications for 'the Editor' (post paid) are to be addressed.

TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

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My Grandmother, The Mariner's Grave, and J. W. D. in our next. C. C. in an early number.

The 'Minerva Club' may possess some point, but we confess we cannot discover it.

The Anecdote of Dr. Johnson, though true, is only giving 'a local habitation and a name' to a very common-place observation.

Y. Z.'s communication is an advertisement.

Pursuing the plan we have laid down, to make the Literary Chronicle and Weekly Review a desirable literary intelligencer to persons resident abroad, the Second Part, sewed, with an Index for the ten numbers, of which it consists, will be published on Saturday next, price 5s. 6d. The Third Part will close the year, and will contain twelve numbers, price 6s. 6d. Our weekly readers are requested to bear in mind, that a general Index to the Volume will be given, at the end of the year.

This day is published, in 2 vols. 8vo. price 11. 4s. boards,
A CLASSICAL TOUR through ITALY and SICILY, tending to illustrate some Districts which have not been described by Mr. Eustace, in his Classical Tour.

By Sir RICHARD COLT HOARE, Bart.

* * * It has been a topic of general regret in the literary world, that Mr. Eustace did not live to finish the Supplementary Volume to his 'Classical Tour,' so as to form a complete Work on the present and past State of Italy, for which he was engaged in collecting materials at the period of his premature decease. But what Mr. Eustace did not live to accomplish, Sir Richard Colt Hoare has executed, and in such a manner as, it is hoped, will be at once acceptable to the public, and gratifying to the numerous friends of Mr. Eustace, as a tribute of respect to his genius, and of affection to his memory.

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Sir R. C. Hoare's 4to. volume, separate, 2l. 2s.

MRS. ROCHE'S NEW WORK.

On the 12th of October will be published, in four large volumes, THE MUNSTER COTTAGE BOY; a Tale, by Regina Maria Roche, Author of the Children of the Abbey, &c.

Printed for A. K. NEWMAN and Co. Leadenhall Street.

The following have appeared this Summer:

CESARIO ROSALBA; or, the Oath of Vengeance, a Romance, by Anne of Swansea, 5 vols. 11. 7s. 6d.

ISKANDER; or, The Hero of Epirus, by Arthur Spencer, 3 vols. 15s.

THE CASTLE OF VILLA FLORA; a Portuguese Tale, by a British Officer, 3 vols. 16s. 6d.

THE BLACK CONVENT; a Tale of Feudal Times, 11s. 2 vols.

MAN AS HE IS, by the Author of 'Man as He is not,' Third Edition, 4 vols. price 20s.

THE CASTLE OF SANTA FE; a Romance, 2nd Edition, 4 vols. 11.

THE HIGHLANDER, a Tale of My Landlady, 2 vols. 11s. boards,

This day is published, by J. MAWMAN, 39, Ludgate Street, London, in three large volumes, 4to. price 5l. 5s. boards,

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND, from the first Invasion by the Romans, to the Accession of Henry VIII.

By the Rev. JOHN LINGARD,

Author of 'The Antiquities of the Anglo-Saxon Church.'

This Work contains the History of the Southern Division of this Island, from its first invasion by the Romans to the Accession of Henry VIII. To render it worthy the patronage of the Public, the Author has spared no pains in consulting the most ancient Historians, and comparing their Narratives with such Authentic Documents as are known to exist. He has not confined himself to a barren recital of facts, but has endeavoured to trace the progress of the Nation from barbarism to refinement, and to mark its gradual improvement in the arts of Legislation and Government. With this view he has considered it a duty to delineate with accuracy, the manners, laws, and polity of our Anglo Saxon ancestors; to notice the foreign customs engrailed upon them by the Norman conquerors; to develop the causes which rendered the sovereign dependent on the bounty of his vassals, and led to the introduction of the representatives of the people into the great council of the nation; and to describe the most valuable improvements, which, in the course of each reign, were made in the laws, the administration of justice, and the internal government of the kingdom.

It may, perhaps, be thought a recommendation to this work, that it was, in the first instance, composed without any reference to modern historians. The Author religiously confined his researches to the original, and whenever it was possible to contemporary writers. This resolution rendered his task more laborious; but it rendered it also more satisfactory. It preserved him from imbibing the prejudices, or copying the mistakes of others: it left him to the unbiassed exercise of his own judgment; and it has enabled him to place in a new, and he trusts a more interesting light, some of the most important occurrences in our history.

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